

Grammar Handbook

1 Quick Reference: Parts of Speech

Part of Speech	Definition	Examples
Noun	Names a person, place, thing, idea, quality, or action.	Odysseus, Greece, boat, freedom, joy, sailing
Pronoun	Takes the place of a noun or another pronoun.	
Personal	Refers to the one speaking, spoken to, or spoken about.	I, me, my, mine, we, us, our, ours, you, your, yours, she, he, it, her, him, hers, his, its, they, them, their, theirs
Reflexive	Follows a verb or preposition and refers to a preceding noun or pronoun.	myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves
Intensive	Emphasizes a noun or another pronoun.	(Same as reflexives)
Demonstrative	Points to specific persons or things.	this, that, these, those
Interrogative	Signals questions.	who, whom, whose, which, what
Indefinite	Refers to person(s) or thing(s) not specifically mentioned.	both, all, most, many, anyone, everybody, several, none, some
Relative	Introduces subordinate clauses and relates them to words in the main clause.	who, whom, whose, which, that
Verb	Expresses action, condition, or state of being.	
Action	Tells what the subject does or did, physically or mentally.	run, reaches, listened, consider, decides, dreamt
Linking	Connects subjects to that which identifies or describes them.	am, is, are, was, were, sound, taste, appear, feel, become, remain, seem
Auxiliary	Precedes and introduces main verbs.	be, have, do, can, could, will, would, may, might
Adjective	Modifies nouns or pronouns.	strong women, two epics, enough time
Adverb	Modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.	walked out , really funny, far away
Preposition	Relates one word to another (following) word.	at, by, for, from, in, of, on, to, with
Conjunction	Joins words or word groups.	
Coordinating	Joins words or word groups used the same way.	and, but, or, for, so, yet, nor
Correlative	Join words or word groups used the same way and are used in pairs.	both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor
Subordinating	Joins word groups not used the same way.	although, after, as, before, because, when, if, unless
Interjection	Expresses emotion.	wow, ouch, hurrah

2 Nouns

A **noun** is a word used to name a person, place, thing, idea, quality, or action. Nouns can be classified in several ways. All nouns can be placed in at least two classifications. They are either common or proper. All are also either abstract or concrete. Some nouns can be classified as compound, collective, and possessive as well.

2.1 Common Nouns are general names, common to an entire group.

EXAMPLES: *poet, novel, love, journey*

2.2 Proper Nouns name specific, one-of-a-kind things. (See Capitalization, page 1203.)

EXAMPLES: *Jackson, Pleasant Street, Lewis*

2.3 Concrete Nouns name things that can be perceived by the senses.

EXAMPLES: *roof, flash, Dublin, battle*

2.4 Abstract Nouns name things that cannot be observed by the senses.

EXAMPLES: *intelligence, fear, joy, loneliness*

	Common	Proper
Abstract	peace	Christianity
Concrete	sniper	O'Connell Street

2.5 Compound Nouns are formed from two or more words but express a single idea. They are written as single words, as separate words, or with hyphens. Use a dictionary to check the correct spelling of a compound noun.

EXAMPLES: *haircut, father-in-law, Christmas Eve*

2.6 Collective Nouns are singular nouns that refer to groups of people or things. (See Collective Nouns as Subjects, page 1200.)

EXAMPLES: *army, flock, class, species*

2.7 Possessive Nouns show who or what owns something. Consult the chart above for the proper use of the possessive apostrophe.

Category	Possessive Nouns Rule	Examples
All singular nouns	Add apostrophe plus -s	Stafford's, tree's, Bess's, town's, great-grandfather's
Plural nouns not ending in -s	Add apostrophe plus -s	children's, women's, people's
Plural nouns ending in -s	Add apostrophe only	witnesses', churches', males', Johnsons'

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

A. For each underlined noun, first tell whether it is common or proper. Then tell whether it is concrete or abstract.

- Miss Adela Strangeworth lived alone in the house her grandfather had built.
- Adela had lived on Pleasant Street all her life, tending the roses her grandmother had planted.
- She knew everyone in town, though she kept a formal distance from people of lower status.
- Although she and Tommy Lewis had been in the same high school class, she called him only "Mr. Lewis" after he opened his grocery store.
- Mr. Lewis seemed worried; he even forgot to remind Miss Strangeworth to buy her tea on Tuesday.
- Helen Crane looked at her baby with wonder, but she worried that the child might be slow.
- Miss Strangeworth wanted society to be alert for the possibility of evil.
- She wrote anonymous letters—the one to Don Crane, Helen's husband, suggested that their child was an idiot.
- At the post office, Miss Strangeworth opened her pocketbook and dropped one of her letters.
- A boy delivered the letter to Don Crane, and he took revenge by destroying Miss Strangeworth's roses.

B. 11–15. From the sentences above, write three compound nouns and two collective nouns.

C. Write the possessive form of the following nouns.

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 16. Shirley Jackson | 21. tourists |
| 17. Mr. Lewis | 22. box |
| 18. children | 23. roses |
| 19. minister | 24. Miss Strangeworth |
| 20. bus | 25. princess |

3 Pronouns

A *pronoun* is a word that is used in place of a noun or another pronoun. The word or word group to which the pronoun refers is called its *antecedent*.

3.1 Personal Pronouns are pronouns that change their form to express person, number, gender, and case. The forms of these pronouns are shown in the chart that follows.

	Nominative	Objective	Possessive
Singular			
First Person	I	me	my, mine
Second Person	you	you	your, yours
Third Person	she, he, it	her, him, it	her, hers, his, its
Plural			
First Person	we	us	our, ours
Second Person	you	you	your, yours
Third Person	they	them	their, theirs

3.2 Pronoun Agreement Pronouns should agree with their antecedents in number and person. Singular pronouns are used to replace singular nouns. Plural pronouns are used to replace plural nouns. Pronouns must also match the gender (masculine, feminine, or neuter) of the nouns they replace.

3.3 Pronoun Case Personal pronouns change form to show how they function in a sentence. This change of form is called *case*. The three cases are **nominative**, **objective**, and **possessive**.

A **nominative pronoun** is used as the subject or the predicate nominative of a sentence.

An **objective pronoun** is used as the direct or indirect object of a sentence or as the object of a preposition.

SUBJECT OBJECT
He will lead *them* to *us*.
 OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

A **possessive pronoun** shows ownership. The pronouns *mine*, *yours*, *hers*, *his*, *its*, *ours*, and *theirs* can be used in place of nouns.

EXAMPLE: *This horse is mine.*

The pronouns *my*, *your*, *her*, *his*, *its*, *our*, and *their* are used before nouns.

EXAMPLE: *This is my horse.*

USAGE TIP To decide which pronoun to use in a comparison, such as *He tells better tales than (I or me)*, fill in the missing words: *He tells better tales than I tell.*

WATCH OUT! Many spelling errors can be avoided if you watch out for *its* and *their*. Don't confuse the possessive pronoun *its* with the contraction *it's*, meaning *it is* or *it has*. The homonyms *they're* (contraction for *they are*) and *there* (a place or an expletive) are often mistakenly used for *their*.

3.4 Reflexive and Intensive Pronouns

These pronouns are formed by adding *-self* or *-selves* to certain personal pronouns. Their forms are the same, and they differ only in how they are used.

Reflexive pronouns follow verbs or prepositions and reflect back on an earlier noun or pronoun.

EXAMPLES: *He likes himself too much. She is now herself again.*

Intensive pronouns intensify or emphasize the nouns or pronouns to which they refer.

EXAMPLES: *They themselves will educate their children. You did it yourselves.*

Singular

First Person	myself
Second Person	yourself
Third Person	herself, himself, itself

Plural

First Person	ourselves
Second Person	yourselves
Third Person	themselves

WATCH OUT! Avoid using *hissself* or *theirselves*. Standard English does not include these forms.

NONSTANDARD: *The sniper kept hissself hidden behind a chimney.*

STANDARD: *The sniper kept himself hidden behind a chimney.*

USAGE TIP Reflexive and intensive pronouns should never be used without antecedents.

INCORRECT: *Read a tale to my brother and myself.*

CORRECT: *Read a tale to my brother and me.*

3.5 Demonstrative Pronouns point out things and persons near and far.

	Singular	Plural
Near	this	these
Far	that	those

WATCH OUT! Avoid using the objective pronoun *them* in place of the demonstrative *those*.

INCORRECT: *Let's dramatize one of them tales.*

CORRECT: *Let's dramatize one of those tales.*

3.6 Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to specific persons or things and usually have no antecedents. The chart shows some commonly used indefinite pronouns:

Singular	Plural	Singular or Plural	
each	both	all	half
either	few	any	plenty
neither	many	more	none
another	several	most	some

Here is another set of indefinite pronouns, all of which are singular. Notice that, with one exception, they are spelled as one word:

anyone	everyone	no one	someone
anybody	everybody	nobody	somebody
anything	everything	nothing	something

USAGE TIP Since all these are singular, pronouns referring to them should be singular.

INCORRECT: *Did everybody play their part well?*

CORRECT: *Did everybody play his or her part well?*

If the antecedent of the pronoun is both male and female, *his* or *her* may be used as an alternative, or the sentence may be recast:

EXAMPLES: *Did everybody play his or her part well?*

Did all the students play their parts well?

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Write the correct form of all incorrect pronouns in the sentences below.

1. Jim needed money for a present for Della, so he took his watch to the pawn shop hissself.
2. Would anybody else sell their watch to buy a Christmas present?
3. He chose a beautiful pair of them jeweled combs that Della could wear in her hair.
4. He was surprised to learn that she had sold her long hair to buy a watch chain for himself.
5. They gave theirselves better Christmas presents than they knew.

3.7 Interrogative Pronouns tell a reader or listener that a question is coming. The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, and *what*.

EXAMPLES: *Who is going to rehearse with you?*
From whom did you receive the script?

USAGE TIP *Who* is used for subjects, *whom* for objects. To find out which pronoun you need to use in a question, change the question to a statement:

QUESTION: *(Who/Whom?) did you meet there?*
STATEMENT: *You met (?) there.*

Since the verb has a subject (*you*), the needed word must be the object form, *whom*.

EXAMPLE: *Whom did you meet there?*

WATCH OUT! A special problem arises when you use an interrupter such as *do you think* within a sentence:

EXAMPLE: (*Who/Whom*) *do you think* will win?

If you eliminate the interrupter, it is clear that the word you need is *who*.

3.8 Relative Pronouns relate, or connect, clauses to the words they modify in sentences. The noun or pronoun that the clause modifies is the antecedent of the relative pronoun. Here are the relative pronouns and their uses:

Replacing:	Subject	Object	Possessive
Persons	who	whom	whose
Things	which	which	whose
Things/Persons*	that	that	whose

* *That* generally will not replace specific names, such as Edgar Allan Poe.

Often short sentences with related ideas can be combined using relative pronouns to create a more effective sentence.

SHORT SENTENCE: Poe wrote "*The Raven*."

RELATED SENTENCE: "*The Raven*" is one of the most famous poems in American literature.

COMBINED SENTENCE: Poe wrote "*The Raven*," which is one of the most famous poems in American literature.

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Choose the appropriate interrogative or relative pronoun from the words in parentheses.

- Poe, (who/that) wrote "*The Bells*," made each verse sound like a different kind of bell.
- I hear silver sleigh bells. (Who/Whom) has the sledge been sent for?
- The couple (who/whom) are coming from their wedding hear the golden bells.
- When the brass alarm bells ring, the people (who/whom) live nearby run to help put out the fire.
- The iron bells ring for a funeral. Do you know for (who/whom) the bells toll?

4 Verbs

A verb is a word that expresses an action, a condition, or a state of being. There are two main kinds of verbs: action and linking. Other verbs, called auxiliary verbs, are sometimes used with action verbs and linking verbs.

4.1 Action Verbs tell what action someone or something is performing, physically or mentally.

PHYSICAL ACTION: You hit the target.

MENTAL ACTION: She dreamed of me.

4.2 Linking Verbs do not express action. Linking verbs link subjects to complements that identify or describe them. Linking verbs may be divided into two groups:

FORMS OF TO BE: She is our queen.

VERBS THAT EXPRESS CONDITION: The writer looked thoughtful.

4.3 Auxiliary Verbs, sometimes called helping verbs, precede action or linking verbs and modify their meanings in special ways. The most commonly used auxiliary verbs are parts of the verbs *be*, *have*, and *do*.

Be: *am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been*

Have: *have, has, had*

Do: *do, does, did*

Other common auxiliary verbs are *can*, *could*, *will*, *would*, *shall*, *should*, *may*, *might*, and *must*.

EXAMPLES: I always have admired her.

You must listen to me.

4.4 Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Action verbs can be either transitive or intransitive. A transitive verb directs the action towards someone or something. The transitive verb has an object. An intransitive verb does not direct the action towards someone or something. It does not have an object. Since linking verbs convey no action, they are always intransitive.

Transitive: The storm sank the ship.

Intransitive: The ship sank.

4.5 Principal Parts Action and linking verbs typically have four principal parts, which are used to form verb tenses. The principal parts are the *present*, the *present participle*, the *past*, and the *past participle*.

If the verb is a regular verb, the past and past participle are formed by adding the ending *-d* or *-ed* to the present part. Here is a chart showing four regular verbs:

Present	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle
risk	(is) risking	risked	(have) risked
solve	(is) solving	solved	(have) solved
drop	(is) dropping	dropped	(have) dropped
carry	(is) carrying	carried	(have) carried

Note that the present participle and past participle forms are preceded by a form of *be* or *have*. These forms cannot be used alone as main verbs and always need an auxiliary verb.

EXAMPLES: *The man is risking his life.*

The man has stopped running.

The past and past participle of irregular verbs are not formed by adding *-d* or *-ed* to the present; they are formed in irregular ways.

Present	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle
begin	(is) beginning	began	(have) begun
break	(is) breaking	broke	(have) broken
bring	(is) bringing	brought	(have) brought
choose	(is) choosing	chose	(have) chosen
go	(is) going	went	(have) gone
lose	(is) losing	lost	(have) lost
see	(is) seeing	saw	(have) seen
swim	(is) swimming	swam	(have) swum
write	(is) writing	wrote	(have) written

4.6 Verb Tense The tense of a verb tells the time of the action or the state of being. An action or state of being can occur in the present, the past, or the future. There are six tenses, each expressing a different range of time.

Present tense expresses an action that is happening at the present time, occurs regularly, or is constant or generally true. Use the present part.

EXAMPLES

NOW: *That snow looks deep.*

REGULAR: *It snows every day.*

GENERAL: *Snow falls.*

Past tense expresses an action that began and ended in the past. Use the past part.

EXAMPLE: *The storyteller finished his tale.*

Future tense expresses an action (or state of being) that will occur. Use *shall* or *will* with the present part.

EXAMPLE: *They will attend the next festival.*

Present perfect tense expresses action (1) that was completed at an indefinite time in the past or (2) that began in the past and continues into the present. Use *have* or *has* with the past participle.

EXAMPLE: *Poetry has inspired readers throughout the ages.*

Past perfect tense shows an action in the past that came before another action in the past. Use *had* before the past participle.

EXAMPLE: *He had built a fire before the dog ran away.*

Future perfect tense shows an action in the future that will be completed before another action in the future. Use *shall have* or *will have* before the past participle.

EXAMPLE: *They will have finished the novel before seeing the movie version of the tale.*

4.7 Progressive Forms The progressive forms of the six tenses show ongoing action. Use a form of *be* with the present participle of a verb.

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE: *She is rehearsing her lines.*

PAST PROGRESSIVE: *She was rehearsing her lines.*

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE: *She will be rehearsing her lines.*

PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE: *She has been rehearsing her lines.*

PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE: *She had been rehearsing her lines.*

FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE: *She will have been rehearsing her lines.*

WATCH OUT! Do not shift tense needlessly. Watch out for these special cases.

- In most compound sentences and in sentences with compound predicates, keep the tenses the same.

INCORRECT: *His boots freeze, and he shook with cold.*

CORRECT: *His boots freeze, and he shakes with cold.*

- If one past action happens before another, do shift tenses—from the past to the past perfect:

INCORRECT: *They wished they started earlier.*

CORRECT: *They wished they had started earlier.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Write the verb(s) in each sentence and identify their tenses.

1. Many people have benefited from the civil rights movement.
2. Martin Luther King, Jr., remains a towering figure in the history of nonviolent protest.
3. King became the leader of the Montgomery bus boycott.
4. When he spoke to the crowds in Washington, D.C., more than 200,000 people heard his words.
5. You will be reading his speech "I Have a Dream."

4.8 Active and Passive Voice The voice of a verb tells whether the subject of a sentence performs or receives the action expressed by the verb. When the subject performs the action, the verb is in the active voice. When the subject is the receiver of the action, the verb is in the passive voice.

Compare these two sentences:

ACTIVE: *Richard Wilbur wrote "The Writer."*

PASSIVE: *"The Writer" was written by Richard Wilbur.*

To form the passive voice use a form of *be* with the past participle of the main verb.

WATCH OUT! Use the passive voice sparingly. It tends to make writing less forceful and less direct. It can also make the writing awkward.

AWKWARD: *"The Writer" is a poem that was written by Richard Wilbur.*

CORRECT: *Richard Wilbur wrote the poem "The Writer."*

There are occasions when you will choose to use the passive voice because

- you want to emphasize the receiver: *The king was shot.*
- the doer is unknown: *My books were stolen.*
- the doer is unimportant: *French is spoken here.*

4.9 Mood The mood identifies the manner in which the verb expresses an idea. There are three moods.

The indicative mood states a fact or asks a question. You use this mood most often.

EXAMPLE: *His trust was shattered by the betrayal.*

The imperative mood is used to give a command or make a request.

EXAMPLE: *Be there by eight o'clock sharp.*

The subjunctive mood is used to express a wish or a condition that is contrary to fact.

EXAMPLE: *If I were you, I wouldn't get my hopes up.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Identify the verbs as active or passive.

1. The wild bird flies on the back of the wind.
2. Behind its bars, the caged bird sings beautifully.
3. The song is filled with sorrow and longing.
4. The bird longs for the freedom of the wild bird.
5. The book was written by Maya Angelou.

For the following items, identify the boldfaced verb as indicative or subjunctive in mood.

6. Do you **understand** the bird's frustration and fear?
7. If I **were** a bird, I wouldn't want to be caged.
8. Angelou **was inspired** by Paul Laurence Dunbar's poem "Sympathy."
9. His poems **were** inspirational for many.
10. If he **were** alive today, he would probably continue to write about freedom.

5 Modifiers

Modifiers are words or groups of words that change or limit the meanings of other words. The two kinds of modifiers are adjectives and adverbs.

5.1 Adjectives An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or pronoun by telling *which one, what kind, how many, or how much*.

WHICH ONE: *this, that, these, those*

EXAMPLE: *That bird is a scarlet ibis.*

WHAT KIND: *small, sick, courageous, black*

EXAMPLE: *The sick bird sways on the branch.*

HOW MANY: *some, few, thirty, none, both, each*

EXAMPLE: *Both brothers stared at the bird.*

HOW MUCH: *more, less, enough, scarce*

EXAMPLE: *The bird did not have enough strength to remain perched.*

The **articles** *a, an, and the* are usually classified as adjectives. These are the most common adjectives that you will use.

EXAMPLES: *The bridge was burned before the attack.*

A group of peasants led the procession in the town.

5.2 Predicate Adjectives Most adjectives come before the nouns they modify, as in the examples above. Predicate adjectives, however, follow linking verbs and describe the subject.

EXAMPLE: *My friends are very intelligent.*

Be especially careful to use adjectives (not adverbs) after such linking verbs as *look, feel, grow, taste, and smell*.

EXAMPLE: *The weather grows cold.*

5.3 Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs by telling *where, when, how, or to what extent*.

WHERE: *The children played outside.*

WHEN: *The author spoke yesterday.*

HOW: *We walked slowly behind the leader.*

TO WHAT EXTENT: *He worked very hard.*

Unlike adjectives, adverbs tend to be mobile words; they may occur in many places in sentences.

EXAMPLES: *Suddenly the wind shifted. The wind suddenly shifted. The wind shifted suddenly.*

Changing the position of adverbs within sentences can vary the rhythm in your writing.

5.4 Adjective or Adverb Many adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to adjectives.

EXAMPLES: *sweet, sweetly; gentle, gently*

However, *-ly* added to a noun will usually yield an adjective.

EXAMPLES: *friend, friendly; woman, womanly*

5.5 Comparison of Modifiers The form of an adjective or adverb indicates the degree of comparison that the modifier expresses. Both adjectives and adverbs have three forms, or degrees: the positive, comparative, and superlative.

The positive form is used to describe individual things, groups, or actions.

EXAMPLES: *His father's hands were strong. His father was courageous.*

The comparative form is used to compare two things, groups, or actions.

EXAMPLES: *His father's hands were stronger than his own. His father was more courageous than the others.*

The superlative form is used to compare more than two things, groups, or actions.

EXAMPLES: *His father's hands were the strongest in the family. His father was the most courageous of them all.*

5.6 Regular Comparisons One-syllable and some two-syllable adjectives and adverbs form their comparative and superlative forms by adding *-er* or *-est*. All three-syllable and most two-syllable modifiers form their comparative and superlative by using *more* or *most*.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
small	smaller	smallest
thin	thinner	thinnest
sleepy	sleepier	sleepiest
useless	more useless	most useless
precisely	more precisely	most precisely

WATCH OUT! Note that spelling changes must sometimes be made to form the comparative and superlative of modifiers.

EXAMPLES: *friendly, friendlier* (change *y* to *i* and add the ending)

sad, sadder (double the final consonant and add the ending)

5.7 Irregular Comparisons Some commonly used modifiers have irregular comparative and superlative forms. You may wish to memorize them.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
far	farther or further	farthest or furthest
little	less or lesser	least
many	more	most
well	better	best
much	more	most

5.8 Using Modifiers Correctly Study the tips that follow to avoid common mistakes.

Farther and Further *Farther* is used for distances; use *further* for everything else.

Avoiding double comparisons You make a comparison by using *-er/-est* or by using *more/most*. Using *-er* with *more* or using *-est* with *most* is incorrect.

INCORRECT: *I like her more better than she likes me.*

CORRECT: *I like her better than she likes me.*

Avoiding illogical comparisons An illogical or confusing comparison results if two unrelated things are compared or if something is compared with itself. The word *other* or the word *else* should be used in a comparison of an individual member with the rest of the group.

ILLOGICAL: *The narrator was more curious about the war than any student in his class.* (Was the narrator a student in his class?)

LOGICAL: *The narrator was more curious about the war than any other student in his class.*

Bad vs. Badly *Bad*, always an adjective, is used before nouns or after linking verbs to describe the subject. *Badly*, always an adverb, never modifies a noun. Be sure to use the right form after a linking verb.

INCORRECT: *Ed felt badly after his team lost.*

CORRECT: *Ed felt bad after his team lost.*

Good vs. Well *Good* is always an adjective. It is used before nouns or after a linking verb to modify the subject. *Well* is often an adverb meaning "expertly" or "properly." *Well* can also be used as an adjective after a linking verb, when it means "in good health."

INCORRECT: *Helen writes very good.*

CORRECT: *Helen writes very well.*

CORRECT: *Yesterday I felt bad; today I feel well.*

Double negatives If you add a negative word to a sentence that is already negative, the result will be an error known as a double negative. When using *not* or *-n't* with a verb, use "*any-*" words, such as *anybody* or *anything*, rather than "*no-*" words, such as *nobody* or *nothing*, later in the sentence.

INCORRECT: *I don't have no money.*

CORRECT: *I don't have any money.*

INCORRECT: *We haven't seen nobody.*

CORRECT: *We haven't seen anybody.*

Using *hardly*, *barely*, or *scarcely* after a negative word is also incorrect.

INCORRECT: *They couldn't barely see two feet ahead.*

CORRECT: *They could barely see two feet ahead.*

Misplaced modifiers A misplaced modifier is one placed so far away from the word it modifies that the intended meaning of the sentence is unclear. Place modifiers as close as possible to the words they modify.

MISPLACED: *We found the child in the park who was missing.* (The child was missing, not the park.)

CLEARER: *We found the child who was missing in the park.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Choose the correct word from each pair in parentheses.

1. *The House on Mango Street* gives (better/more better) insights into Mexican-American culture than any other book I've read.
2. Sandra Cisneros's family moved so often that she hardly had (any/no) friends.
3. She felt (bad, badly) that she didn't live in a perfect house like the ones she saw on TV.
4. When she went to graduate school, there wasn't (anybody, nobody) like her there.
5. Living in such a different culture made her feel so (bad, badly) that she could hardly talk about it.
6. Cisneros realized that she hadn't (ever/never) read a book about a house like her own.
7. She decided to write about things that (no one/no one else) in her class knew about.

8. She searched for the (ugliest/most ugliest) subjects she could find.
9. Now Cisneros feels (good, well) about her "otherness"—her difference from other people.
10. She is glad when people tell her that her book describes their own lives (clear/clearly).

6 Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections

6.1 Prepositions A preposition is a word used to show the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and another word in the sentence.

Commonly Used Prepositions

above	down	near	through
at	for	of	to
before	from	on	up
below	in	out	with
by	into	over	without

The preposition is always followed by a word or group of words that serve as its object. The preposition, its object, and modifiers of the object are called the **prepositional phrase**. In each example below, the prepositional phrase is underlined and the object of the preposition is in boldface type.

EXAMPLES

The future of the entire kingdom is uncertain.
We searched through the deepest woods.

Prepositional phrases may be used as adjectives or as adverbs. The phrase in the first example is used as an adjective modifying the noun *future*. In the second example, the phrase is used as an adverb modifying the verb *searched*.

WATCH OUT! Prepositional phrases must be as close as possible to the word they modify.

MISPLACED: *We have clothes for leisure wear of many colors.*

CLEARER: *We have clothes of many colors for leisure wear.*

6.2 Conjunctions A conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, or sentences. There are three kinds of conjunctions: **coordinating conjunctions**, **correlative conjunctions**, and **subordinating conjunctions**.

Coordinating conjunctions connect words or word groups that have the same function in a sentence. These include *and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, *so*, *yet*, and *nor*.

Coordinating conjunctions can join nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, and clauses in a sentence.

These examples show coordinating conjunctions joining words of the same function:

EXAMPLES

I have many friends but few enemies. (two noun objects)

We ran out the door and into the street. (two prepositional phrases)

They are pleasant yet seem aloof. (two predicates)

We have to go now, or we will be late. (two clauses)

Correlative conjunctions are similar to coordinating conjunctions. However, correlative conjunctions are always used in pairs.

Correlative Conjunctions

both . . . and	neither . . . nor	whether . . . or
either . . . or	not only . . . but also	

Subordinating conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses—clauses that cannot stand by themselves as complete sentences. The subordinating conjunction shows how the subordinate clause relates to the rest of the sentence. The relationships include time, manner, place, cause, comparison, condition, and purpose.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

TIME	<i>after, as, as long as, as soon as, before, since, until, when, whenever, while</i>
MANNER	<i>as, as if</i>
PLACE	<i>where, wherever</i>
CAUSE	<i>because, since</i>

COMPARISON	<i>as, as much as, than</i>
CONDITION	<i>although, as long as, even if, even though, if, provided that, though, unless, while</i>
PURPOSE	<i>in order that, so that, that</i>

In the example below, the boldface word is the conjunction, and the underlined words are called a subordinate clause:

EXAMPLE: *I recall his advice **whenever** I must make a hard decision.*

I recall his advice is an independent clause because it can stand alone as a complete sentence. *Whenever I must make a hard decision* cannot stand alone as a complete sentence; it is a subordinate clause.

Conjunctive adverbs are used to connect clauses that can stand by themselves as sentences. Conjunctive adverbs include *also*, *besides*, *finally*, *however*, *moreover*, *nevertheless*, *otherwise*, and *then*.

EXAMPLE: *She loved the fall; however, she also enjoyed winter.*

6.3 Interjections are words used to show strong emotion, such as *wow* and *cool*. Often followed by an exclamation point, they have no grammatical relationship to the rest of a sentence.

EXAMPLE: *You've written ten poems? Wow!*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Label each of the boldfaced words as a preposition, conjunction, or interjection.

1. Elena lived **in** Patterson, New Jersey, **near** streets named Straight and Narrow.
2. She didn't like school, **although** she liked to read.
3. **While** she read by her window, she could watch the people in the house **below** the fire escape.
4. Then after the old man died, the house **where** the older couple had lived was vacant for weeks.
5. **When** Eugene's family moved **into** the house, Elena liked him because he read books, too.
6. She **and** Eugene wanted to study American history.
7. **As soon as** she got home **from** school, she prepared to visit Eugene.
8. **Stop!** Don't go out **because** Kennedy has died.
9. She knew something dreadful had happened, **yet** she wanted to see her new friend.

7 Quick Reference: The Sentence and Its Parts

The diagrams that follow will give you a brief review of the essentials of the sentence—subjects and predicates—and of some of its parts.

The speaker's **pockets** **bulged** with oranges.

The **complete subject** includes all the words that identify the person, place, thing, or idea that the sentence is about.

The **complete predicate** includes all the words that tell or ask something about the subject.

pockets

bulged

The **simple subject** tells exactly whom or what the sentence is about. It may be one word or a group of words, but it does not include modifiers.

The **simple predicate**, or **verb**, tells what the subject does or is. It may be one word or several, but it does not include modifiers.

At the drug store, an understanding clerk **had given** the speaker **a chocolate bar.**

A **prepositional phrase** consists of a preposition, its object, and any modifiers of the object. In this phrase, *at* is the preposition and *drug store* is its object.

subject

A **direct object** is a word or group of words that tells who or what receives the action of the verb in the sentence.

Verbs often have more than one part. They may be made up of a **main verb**, like *given*, and one or more **auxiliary**, or **helping**, verbs, like *had*.

An **indirect object** is a word or a group of words that tells *to whom* or *for whom* or *to what* or *for what* about the verb. A sentence can have an indirect object only if it has a direct object. The indirect object always comes before the direct object in a sentence.

8 The Sentence and Its Parts

A sentence is a group of words used to express a complete thought. A complete sentence has a subject and predicate.

8.1 Kinds of Sentences Sentences make statements, ask questions, give commands, and show feelings. There are four basic types of sentences.

Type	Definition	Example
Declarative	states a fact, wish, intent, or feeling	Audre Lorde understands youths.
Interrogative	asks a question	Did you read "Hanging Fire"?
Imperative	gives a command, direction	Read the poem.
Exclamatory	expresses strong feeling or excitement	The poem is amazing!

WRITING TIP One way to vary your writing is to employ a variety of different types of sentences. In the first example below, each sentence is declarative. Notice how much more interesting the revised paragraph is.

SAMPLE PARAGRAPH: *You have to see Niagara Falls in person. You can truly appreciate their awesome power in no other way. You should visit them on your next vacation. They are a spectacular sight.*

REVISED PARAGRAPH: *Have you ever seen Niagara Falls in person? You can truly appreciate their awesome power in no other way. Visit them on your next vacation. What a spectacular sight they are!*

WATCH OUT! Conversation frequently includes parts of sentences, or **fragments**. In formal writing, however, you need to be sure that every sentence is a complete thought and includes a subject and predicate. (See Correcting Fragments, page 1197.)

8.2 Complete Subjects and Predicates

A sentence has two parts: a subject and a predicate. The complete subject includes all the words that identify the person, place, thing, or idea that the sentence is about. The complete predicate includes all the words that tell what the subject did or what happened to the subject.

Complete Subject	Complete Predicate
The poets of the time	wrote about nature.
This new approach	was extraordinary.

8.3 Simple Subjects and Predicates

The simple subject is the key word in the complete subject. The simple predicate is the key word in the complete predicate. In the examples that follow, they are underlined.

Simple Subject	Simple Predicate
The <u>poets</u> of the time	<u>wrote</u> about nature.
This new <u>approach</u>	<u>was</u> extraordinary.

8.4 Compound Subjects and Predicates

A compound subject consists of two or more subjects that share the same verb. They are typically joined by the coordinating conjunction *and* or *or*.

EXAMPLE: *A short story or novel will keep you engaged.*

A compound predicate consists of two or more predicates that share the same subject. They, too, are usually joined by the coordinating conjunction *and*, *but*, or *or*.

EXAMPLE: *The class finished all the poetry but did not read the short stories.*

8.5 Subjects and Predicates in Questions

In many interrogative sentences, the subject may appear after the verb or between parts of a verb phrase.

INTERROGATIVE: *Was Shakespeare a poet as well as a playwright?*

INTERROGATIVE: *Why has this poem been quoted many times?*

8.6 Subjects and Predicates in Imperative Sentences Imperative sentences give commands, requests, or directions. The subject of an imperative sentence is the person spoken to, or *you*. While it is not stated, it is understood to be *you*.

EXAMPLE: (You) *Please tell me what you're thinking.*

8.7 Subjects in Sentences That Begin with There and Here When a sentence begins with *there* or *here*, the subject usually follows the verb. Remember that *there* and *here* are never the subjects of a sentence. The simple subjects in the example sentences are underlined.

EXAMPLES

Here is the solution to the mystery.

There is no time to waste now.

There were too many passengers on the boat.

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Copy each of the following sentences. Then draw one line under the complete subject and two under the complete predicate.

1. Melissa's mother had been sick a long time.
2. There were many arrangements to make before driving to the funeral.
3. Melissa nibbles at her sandwich and leaves the milk glass half full.
4. Carnations and chrysanthemums and gladioli decorate Cousin Jessie's casket.
5. The four teenagers will go to get burgers and then sit by the river after the visitation.
6. Why does Melissa's father let her go out?
7. Don't stay out past 11 o'clock.
8. On the way to the funeral, Mama, Daddy, Cousin Roy, and Buddy rode in the back seat of the limousine.
9. What should the narrator say to the grieving people?
10. Melissa and the narrator will be close friends.

8.8 Complements A complement is a word or group of words that completes the meaning of the sentence. Some sentences contain only a subject and a verb. Most sentences, however, require additional words placed after the verb to complete the meaning of the sentence. There are three kinds of complements: **direct objects**, **indirect objects**, and **subject complements**.

Direct objects are words or word groups that receive the action of action verbs. A direct object answers the question *what?* or *whom?* In the examples that follow, the direct objects are underlined.

EXAMPLES

The students asked many questions.

(asked what?)

The teacher quickly answered them.

(answered what?)

The school accepted girls and boys.

(accepted whom?)

Indirect objects tell *to* or *for whom* or *what* the action of the verb is performed. Indirect objects come before direct objects. In the examples that follow, the indirect objects are underlined.

EXAMPLES

My sister usually gave her friends good advice. (gave to whom?)

Her brother sent the post office a heavy package. (sent to what?)

His kind grandfather mailed him a new tie. (mailed to whom?)

Subject complements come after linking verbs and identify or describe the subject. Subject complements that name or identify the subject of the sentence are called **predicate nominatives**. These include **predicate nouns** and **predicate pronouns**. In the examples that follow, the subject complements are underlined.

EXAMPLES

My friends are very hard workers.

The best writer in the class is she.

Other subject complements describe the subject of the sentence. These are called **predicate adjectives**.

EXAMPLE: *The pianist appeared very energetic.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Write all of the complements in the following sentences, and label them as direct objects, indirect objects, predicate nouns, predicate pronouns, or predicate adjectives.

1. Jack London was a writer and an adventurer.
2. As a young man, London worked and got an education.
3. He traveled the world.
4. When the Klondike Gold Rush began in 1897, London was eager to go.
5. Old timers told London stories of the North.
6. The experiences gave him ideas for many novels and stories.
7. One of Jack London's most famous stories is "To Build a Fire."
8. This story is characteristic of London's stories of the North.
9. London wrote 50 books before dying at age 40.
10. He was one of the most popular writers of his time.

9 Phrases

A phrase is a group of related words that does not have a subject and predicate and functions in a sentence as a single part of speech.

9.1 Prepositional Phrases A prepositional phrase is a phrase that consists of a preposition, its object, and any modifiers of the object. Prepositional phrases that modify nouns or pronouns are called **adjective phrases**. Prepositional phrases that modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb are **adverb phrases**.

ADJECTIVE PHRASE: *The central character of the story is a wicked villain.*

ADVERB PHRASE: *He reveals his nature in the first scene.*

9.2 Appositives and Appositive Phrases

An appositive is a noun or pronoun that usually comes directly after another noun or pronoun and identifies or provides further information about that word. An appositive phrase includes the appositive and all its modifiers. In the following examples, the appositive phrases are underlined.

EXAMPLES

The book is about Richard Wright, a famous writer. The book, an autobiography, tells how he began writing.

Occasionally, an appositive phrase may precede the noun it tells about.

EXAMPLE: *A famous writer, Richard Wright grew up in poverty.*

10 Verbals and Verbal Phrases

A verbal is a verb form that is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. A verbal phrase consists of a verbal, all its modifiers, and all its complements. There are three kinds of verbals: infinitives, participles, and gerunds.

10.1 Infinitives and Infinitive Phrases

An infinitive is a verb form that usually begins with *to* and functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb. The infinitive and its modifiers constitute an infinitive phrase. The examples that follow show several uses of infinitives and infinitive phrases. Each infinitive phrase is underlined.

NOUN: *To know her is my only desire.* (subject)

I'm planning to walk with you. (direct object)

Her goal was to promote women's rights. (predicate nominative)

ADJECTIVE: *We saw his need to be loved.* (adjective modifying *need*)

ADVERB: *She wrote to voice her opinions.* (adverb modifying *wrote*)

Like verbs themselves, infinitives can take objects (*her* in the first noun example), be made passive (*to be loved* in the adjective example), and take modifiers (*with you* in the adverb example).

Because *to*, the sign of the infinitive, precedes infinitives, it is usually easy to recognize them. However, sometimes *to* may be omitted.

EXAMPLE: *Let no one dare [to] enter this shrine.*

10.2 Participles and Participial Phrases

A participle is a verb form that functions as an adjective. Like adjectives, participles modify nouns and pronouns. Most participles use the present participle form, ending in *-ing*, or the past participle form, ending in *-ed* or *-en*. In the examples below, the participles are underlined.

MODIFYING A NOUN: *The dying man had a smile on his face.*

MODIFYING A PRONOUN: *Frustrated, everyone abandoned the cause.*

Participial phrases are participles with all their modifiers and complements.

MODIFYING A NOUN: *The dogs searching for survivors are well trained.*

MODIFYING A PRONOUN: *Having approved your proposal, we are ready to act.*

10.3 Dangling and Misplaced Participles

Participles A participle or participial phrase should be placed as close as possible to the word that it modifies. Otherwise the meaning of the sentence may not be clear.

MISPLACED: *The boys were looking for squirrels searching the trees.*

CLEARER: *The boys searching the trees were looking for squirrels.*

A participle or participial phrase that does not clearly modify anything in a sentence is called a **dangling participle**. A dangling participle causes confusion because it appears to modify a word that it cannot sensibly modify.

Correct a dangling participle by providing a word for the participle to modify.

CONFUSING: *Running like the wind, my hat fell off.* (The hat wasn't running.)

CLEARER: *Running like the wind, I lost my hat.*

10.4 Gerunds and Gerund Phrases

A gerund is a verb form ending in *-ing* that functions as a noun. Gerunds may perform any function nouns perform.

SUBJECT: *Running is my favorite pastime.*

DIRECT OBJECT: *I truly love running.*

SUBJECT COMPLEMENT: *My deepest passion is running.*

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION: *Her love of running keeps her strong.*

Gerund phrases are gerunds with all their modifiers and complements. The gerund phrases are underlined in the following examples.

SUBJECT: *Wishing on a star never got me far.*

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION: *I will finish before leaving the office.*

APPOSITIVE: *Her avocation, flying airplanes, finally led to full-time employment.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Identify the underlined phrases as appositive phrases, infinitive phrases, participial phrases, or gerund phrases.

1. "Daughter of Invention," a short story, was written by Julia Alvarez.
2. The narrator loves to write about her experiences.
3. She has been asked to give a speech.
4. Working feverishly for hours, she finally finishes her speech.
5. Standing before the bed, she reads the speech to her parents.
6. Her father rages at her for insulting her teachers.
7. Seeing her speech in torn-up pieces makes her weep.

11 Clauses

A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb. There are two kinds of clauses: independent clauses and subordinate clauses.

11.1 Independent and Subordinate Clauses An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence, as the word *independent* suggests.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE: *Taos is famous for its Great Bank Robbery.*

A sentence may contain more than one independent clause.

EXAMPLE: *Many people remember the robbery, and they will tell you all about it.*

In the example above, the coordinating conjunction *and* joins the two independent clauses.

A subordinate clause cannot stand alone as a sentence. It is subordinate to, or dependent on, the main clause.

EXAMPLE: *Although the two men needed cash, they didn't get it from the bank.*

Although the two men needed cash cannot stand by itself.

11.2 Adjective Clauses An adjective clause is a subordinate clause used as an adjective. It usually follows the noun or pronoun it modifies.

EXAMPLE: *Tony Hillerman is someone whom millions know as a mystery writer.*

Adjective clauses are typically introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, and *that* (see Relative Pronouns, page 1183). In the examples that follow, the adjective clauses are underlined.

EXAMPLES

A person who needs money should get a job.

The robbers, whose names were Gomez and Smith, had guns.

The robber needed a disguise that would fool Taos's residents.

WATCH OUT! The relative pronouns *whom*, *which*, and *that* may sometimes be omitted when they are objects of their own clauses.

EXAMPLE: *Hillerman is a writer [whom] millions enjoy.*

11.3 Adverb Clauses An adverb clause is a subordinate clause that is used as an adverb to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. It is introduced by a subordinating conjunction (see Subordinating Conjunctions, page 1189).

Adverb clauses typically occur at the beginning or end of sentences. The clauses are underlined in these examples.

MODIFYING A VERB: *When we need you, we will call.*

MODIFYING AN ADVERB: *I'll stay here where there is shelter from the rain.*

MODIFYING AN ADJECTIVE: *Roman felt good when he finished his essay.*

11.4 Noun Clauses A noun clause is a subordinate clause that is used in a sentence as a noun. A noun clause may be used as a subject, a direct object, an indirect object, a predicate nominative, or an object of a preposition. Noun clauses are often introduced by pronouns such as *that*, *what*, *who*, *whoever*, *which*, and *whose*, and by subordinating conjunctions, such as *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *whether*. (See Subordinating Conjunctions, page 1189.)

USAGE TIP Because the same words may introduce adjective and noun clauses, you need to consider how the clause functions within its sentence.

To determine if a clause is a noun clause, try substituting *something* or *someone* for the clause. If you can do it, it is probably a noun clause.

EXAMPLES: *I know whose woods these are.* ("I know something." The clause is a noun clause, direct object of the verb *know*.)

Give a copy to whoever wants one. ("Give a copy to someone." The clause is a noun clause, object of the preposition *to*.)

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Identify each underlined clause as an adjective clause, an adverb clause, or a noun clause.

1. The sheriff investigated whether the killer was Mrs. Wright or an intruder.
2. Did Mrs. Hale, who was Mrs. Wright's neighbor, feel guilty for not visiting her?
3. When Mrs. Hale saw the empty bird cage, she wondered what had become of the bird.
4. The two women decided to hide the dead canary, which was in a box, from the sheriff.
5. The sheriff and county attorney think that Mrs. Wright killed her husband.

12 The Structure of Sentences

When classified by their structure, there are four kinds of sentences: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.

12.1 Simple Sentences A simple sentence is a sentence that has one independent clause and no subordinate clauses. The fact that such sentences are called "simple" does not mean that they are uncomplicated. Various parts of simple sentences may be compound, and they may contain grammatical structures such as appositives and verbals.

EXAMPLES

Ray Bradbury, a science fiction writer, has written short stories and novels. (appositive and compound direct object)

The narrator, recalling the years of his childhood, told his story. (participial phrase)

12.2 Compound Sentences A compound sentence has two or more independent clauses. The clauses are joined together with a comma and a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, yet, for, so*), a semicolon, or a conjunctive adverb with a semicolon. Like simple sentences, compound sentences do not contain any dependent clauses.

EXAMPLES

I enjoyed Bradbury's story "The Utterly Perfect Murder," and I want to read more of his stories.

The narrator had lived a normal, complete life; however, he decided to kill his childhood playmate.

WATCH OUT! Do not confuse compound sentences with simple sentences that have compound parts.

EXAMPLE: *A subcommittee drafted a document and immediately presented it to the entire group.* (here *and* signals a compound predicate, not a compound sentence)

12.3 Complex Sentences A complex sentence has one independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses. Each subordinate clause can be used as a noun or as a modifier. If it is used as a modifier, a subordinate clause usually modifies a word in the main clause, and the main clause can stand alone. However, when a subordinate clause is a noun clause, it is a part of the independent clause; the two cannot be separated.

MODIFIER: *One should not complain, unless she or he has a better solution.*

NOUN CLAUSE: *We sketched pictures of whomever we wished.* (noun clause is the object of the preposition *of* and cannot be separated from the rest of the sentence)

12.4 Compound-Complex Sentences

A compound-complex sentence has two or more independent clauses and one or more subordinate clauses. Compound-complex sentences are, simply, both compound and complex. If you start with a compound sentence, all you need to do to form a compound-complex sentence is add a subordinate clause.

COMPOUND: *All the students knew the answer, yet they were too shy to volunteer.*

COMPOUND-COMPLEX: *All the students knew the answer that their teacher expected, yet they were too shy to volunteer.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Label each of the following sentences simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex.

1. Recovering from a nervous condition, Framton Nuttel moved to the country and visited his neighbors.
2. A young woman meets him when he first arrives at the house.
3. Framton knows few people in the neighborhood, and the young woman tells him about the death of her uncles.
4. Framton visits with Mrs. Sappleton and her niece until he sees three men crossing the lawn; then he flees from the house.
5. Nuttel believed that the hunters had died three years ago.

13 Writing Complete Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought. In writing that you wish to share with a reader, try to avoid both sentence fragments and run-on sentences.

13.1 Correcting Fragments A sentence fragment is a group of words that is only part of a sentence. It does not express a complete thought and may be confusing to the reader or the listener. A sentence fragment may be lacking a subject, a predicate, or both.

FRAGMENT: *waited for the boat to arrive* (no subject)

CORRECTED: *We waited for the boat to arrive.*

FRAGMENT: *people of various races, ages, and creeds* (no predicate)

CORRECTED: *People of various races, ages, and creeds gathered together.*

FRAGMENT: *near the old cottage* (neither subject nor predicate)

CORRECTED: *The burial ground is near the old cottage.*

In your own writing, fragments are usually the result of haste or incorrect punctuation. Sometimes fixing a fragment will be a matter of attaching it to a preceding or following sentence.

FRAGMENT: *We saw the two girls. Waiting for the bus to arrive.*

CORRECTED: *We saw the two girls waiting for the bus to arrive.*

FRAGMENT: *Newspapers appeal to a wide audience. Including people of various races, ages, and creeds.*

CORRECTED: *Newspapers appeal to a wide audience, including people of various races, ages, and creeds.*

13.2 Correcting Run-on Sentences

A run-on sentence is made up of two or more sentences written as though they were one. Some run-ons have no punctuation within them. Others may use only a comma where a conjunction or stronger punctuation is necessary. Use your judgment in correcting run-on sentences, as you have choices. You can make two sentences if the thoughts are not closely connected. If the thoughts are closely related, you can keep the run-on as one sentence by adding a semicolon or a conjunction.

RUN-ON: *We found a place by a small pond for the picnic it is three miles from the village.*

MAKE TWO SENTENCES: *We found a place by a small pond for the picnic. It is three miles from the village.*

RUN-ON: *We found a place by a small pond for the picnic it was perfect.*

USE A SEMICOLON: *We found a place by a small pond for the picnic; it was perfect.*

ADD A CONJUNCTION: *We found a place by a small pond for the picnic, and it was perfect.*

WATCH OUT! When you add a conjunction, make sure you use appropriate punctuation before it: a comma for a coordinating conjunction, a semicolon for a conjunctive adverb. (See Conjunctions, page 1189.) A very common mistake is to use a comma instead of a conjunction or an end mark. This error is called a **comma splice**.

INCORRECT: *He finished the apprenticeship, then he left the village.*

CORRECT: *He finished the apprenticeship, and then he left the village.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Rewrite the following paragraph, correcting all fragments and run-ons.

In "A Christmas Memory," Truman Capote. He tells the story of two best friends. Although one is seven years old and the other is more than sixty. Both are children. Spend all their time together. They make fruitcakes they cut a Christmas tree and decorate it they fly kites. Soon, however, time pulls them apart. He goes off to military school she stays home alone, although she lives with relatives.

14 Subject-Verb Agreement

The subject and verb of a sentence must agree in number. Agreement means that when the subject is singular, the verb must be singular; when the subject is plural, the verb must be plural.

14.1 Basic Agreement Fortunately, agreement between subject and verb in English is simple. Most verbs show the difference between singular and plural only in the third person present tense. The present tense of the third person singular ends in -s.

Present Tense Verb Forms	
Singular	Plural
I sleep	we sleep
you sleep	you sleep
she, he, it sleeps	they sleep

14.2 Agreement with Be The verb *be* presents special problems in agreement because this verb does not follow the usual verb patterns.

Forms of Be			
Present Tense		Past Tense	
Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
I am	we are	I was	we were
you are	you are	you were	you were
she, he, it is	they are	she, he, it was	they were

14.3 Words Between Subject and Verb

A verb agrees only with its subject. When words come between a subject and its verb, ignore them when considering proper agreement. Identify the subject and make sure the verb agrees with it.

EXAMPLES

A story in the newspapers tells about the 1890s.

Dad as well as Mom reads the paper daily.

14.4 Agreement with Compound Subjects

Use a plural verb with most compound subjects joined by the word *and*.

EXAMPLE: *My father and his friends read the paper daily.*

You could substitute the plural pronoun *they* for *my father and his friends*. This shows that you need a plural verb.

If the compound subject is thought of as a unit, you use the singular verb. Test this by substituting the singular pronoun *it*.

EXAMPLE: *Peanut butter and jelly [it] is my brother's favorite sandwich.*

Use a singular verb with a compound subject that is preceded by *each*, *every*, or *many a*.

EXAMPLE: *Each novel and short story seems grounded in personal experience.*

With *or*, *nor*, and the correlative conjunctions *either . . . or* and *neither . . . nor*, make the verb agree with the noun or pronoun nearest the verb.

EXAMPLES

Cookies or ice cream is my favorite dessert.

Either Cheryl or her friends are being invited.

Neither ice storms nor snow is predicted today.

14.5 Personal Pronouns as Subjects

When using a personal pronoun as a subject, make sure to match it with the correct form of the verb *be*. (See the chart in 14.2.) Note especially that the pronoun *you* takes the verbs *are* and *were*, regardless of whether it is referring to the singular *you* or to the plural *you*.

WATCH OUT! *You is* and *you was* are nonstandard forms and should be avoided in writing and speaking. *We was* and *they was* are also forms to be avoided.

INCORRECT: *You was a good student.*
They was starting a new school.

CORRECT: *You were a good student.*
They were starting a new school.

14.6 Indefinite Pronouns as Subjects

Some indefinite pronouns are always singular; some are always plural. Others may be either singular or plural.

Singular Indefinite Pronouns			
another	either	neither	other
anybody	everybody	nobody	somebody
anyone	everyone	no one	someone
anything	everything	nothing	something
each	much	one	

EXAMPLES

Each of the writers was given an award.
Somebody in the room upstairs is sleeping.

The indefinite pronouns that are always plural include *both*, *few*, *many*, and *several*. These take plural verbs.

EXAMPLES

Many of the books in our library are not in circulation.

Few have been returned recently.

Still other indefinite pronouns may be either singular or plural.

Singular or Plural Indefinite Pronouns			
all	enough	most	plenty
any	more	none	some

The number of the indefinite pronouns *any* and *none* depends on the intended meaning.

EXAMPLES

Any of these topics has potential for a good article. (any one topic)

Any of these topics have potential for a good article. (all of the many topics)

The indefinite pronouns *all*, *some*, *more*, *most*, and *none* are singular when they refer to a quantity or part of something. They are plural when they refer to a number of individual things. Context will usually give a clue.

EXAMPLES

All of the flour is gone. (referring to a quantity)

All of the flowers are gone. (referring to individual items)

14.7 Inverted Sentences Problems in agreement often occur in inverted sentences beginning with *here* or *there*; in questions beginning with *why*, *where*, and *what*; and in inverted sentences beginning with a phrase. Identify the subject—wherever it is—before deciding on the verb.

EXAMPLES

There clearly are far too many cooks in this kitchen.

What is the correct ingredient for this stew?

Far from the embroiled cooks stands the master chef.

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Locate the subject of each clause in the sentences below. Then choose the correct verb.

- Many Greeks sail home from Troy, but few (struggles/struggle) as hard as Odysseus to get there.
- Neither Odysseus nor his men (know/knows) what dangers lie ahead.
- There (is/are) more dangers awaiting him than there (is/are) gods to save him.
- Everybody who has read about Odysseus' trials (knows/know) what he endured.
- There (is/are) few friends who can help him during his ten-year odyssey.
- The herds of the Cyclops Polyphemus (gives/give) Odysseus an idea for escape.
- Does anyone (escapes/escape) the spell of Circe?
- Standing before the hogs that are his friends (is/are) Odysseus.
- Some of the winds (blows/blow) favorably, but many (blows/blow) ill.
- Penelope, Telemachus, and the suitors (awaits/await) Odysseus upon his return.

14.8 Sentences with Predicate

Nominatives When a predicate nominative serves as a complement in a sentence, use a verb that agrees with the subject, not the complement.

EXAMPLES

The speeches of Martin Luther King, Jr., are a landmark in American civil rights history. (*Speeches* is the subject—not *landmark*—and it takes the plural verb *are*.)

A landmark in American civil rights is the speeches of Martin Luther King, Jr. (The subject is the singular noun, *landmark*.)

14.9 Don't and Doesn't as Auxiliary

Verbs The auxiliary verb *doesn't* is used with singular subjects and with the personal pronouns *she*, *he*, and *it*. The auxiliary verb *don't* is used with plural subjects and with the personal pronouns *I*, *we*, *you*, and *they*.

SINGULAR

She doesn't know Martin Luther King's famous "I Have a Dream" speech.

Doesn't the young woman read very much?

PLURAL

We don't have the speech memorized.

Don't speakers usually memorize their speeches?

14.10 Collective Nouns as Subjects

Collective nouns are singular nouns that name a group of persons or things. *Team*, for example, is the collective name of a group of individuals. A collective noun takes a singular verb when the group acts as a single unit. It takes a plural verb when the members of the group act separately.

EXAMPLES

Our team usually wins. (the team as a whole wins)

Our team vote differently on most issues. (the individual members vote)

14.11 Relative Pronouns as Subjects

When a relative pronoun is used as a subject of its clause—*who*, *which*, and *that* can serve as subjects—the verb of the clause must agree in number with the antecedent of the pronoun.

SINGULAR: *I didn't read the poem about fireworks that was assigned.*

The antecedent of the relative pronoun *that* is the singular *poem*; therefore, *that* is singular and must take the singular verb *was*.

PLURAL: *William Blake and Amy Lowell, who are very different from each other, are both outstanding poets.*

The antecedent of the relative pronoun *who* is the plural compound subject *William Blake and Amy Lowell*. Therefore *who* is plural, and it takes the plural verb *are*.

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Choose the correct verb for each of the following sentences.

1. (Don't/Doesn't) the play "The Devil and Daniel Webster" end happily?
2. The crowd of merry-makers (congratulate/congratulates) the newlyweds.
3. The fiddler who (confront/confronts) Scratch is chased away.
4. One problem with the trial (is, are) the prejudiced members of the jury.
5. A jury of the dead (hear/hears) the case of Jabez.
6. Scratch (don't/doesn't) know how clever Daniel Webster can be.
7. The objections of Webster (is/are) only a nuisance to Scratch.
8. Daniel Webster asks the jury why they (don't/doesn't) take pity on Jabez.
9. Jabez and Mary, who love each other dearly, (survive/survives) the ordeal.
10. Jabez is probably only one of many people who (is/are) tricked by Scratch.

Quick Reference: Punctuation

LIBRARY
VIVEKANANDA COLLEGE

Punctuation	Function	Examples
End Marks period, question mark, exclamation point	to end sentences	We can start now. When would you like to leave? What a fantastic hit!
	initials and other abbreviations	Mrs. Dorothy Parker, C. P. Cavafy, McDougal Littell Inc., P.M., A.D., lbs., oz., Blvd., Dr.
	items in outlines	I. Volcanoes A. Central-vent 1. Shield
	exception: P.O. states	NE (Nebraska), NV (Nevada)
Commas	before conjunction in compound sentence	I have never disliked poetry, but now I really love it.
	items in a series	She is brave, loyal, and kind. The slow, easy route is best.
	words of address	Maria, how can I help you? You must do something, soldier.
	parenthetical expressions	Well, just suppose that we can't? Hard workers, as you know, don't quit. I'm not a quitter, believe me.
	introductory phrases and clauses	In the beginning of the day, I feel fresh. While she was out, I was here. Having finished my chores, I went out.
	nonessential phrases and clauses	Ed Pawn, captain of the chess team, won. Ed Pawn, who is the captain, won. The two leading runners, sprinting toward the finish line, ended in a tie.
	in dates and addresses	September 21, 2001. Mail it by May 14, 2000, to Hauptman Company, 321 Market Street, Memphis, Tennessee.
	in letter parts	Dear Jim, Sincerely yours,
	for clarity, or to avoid confusion	By noon, time had run out. What the minister does, does matter. While cooking, Jim burned his hand.
Semicolons	in compound sentences that are not joined by coordinators <i>and</i> , etc.	The last shall be first; the first shall be last. I read the Bible; however, I have not memorized it.
	with items in series that contain commas	We invited my sister, Jan; her friend, Don; my uncle Jack; and Mary Dodd.
	in compound sentences that contain commas	After I ran out of money, I called my parents; but only my sister was home, unfortunately.

Punctuation	Function	Examples
Colons	to introduce lists	Correct: Those we wrote were the following: Dana, John, and Will. Incorrect: Those we wrote were: Dana, John, and Will.
	before a long quotation	Abraham Lincoln wrote: "Four score and seven years ago, our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation. . . ."
	after the salutation of a business letter	To Whom It May Concern: Dear Leonard Atole:
	with certain numbers	1:28 P.M., Genesis: 2:5
Dashes	to indicate an abrupt break in thought	I was thinking of my mother—who is arriving tomorrow—just as you walked in.
Parentheses	to enclose less important material	It was so unlike him (John is always on time) that I began to worry. The last World Series game (Did you see it?) was fun.
Hyphens	with a compound adjective before nouns	The not-so-rich taxpayer won't stand for this!
	in compounds with <i>all-, ex-, self-, -elect</i>	The ex-firefighter helped rescue him. Our president-elect is self-conscious.
	in compound numbers (to <i>ninety-nine</i>)	Today, I turn twenty-one.
	in fractions used as adjectives	My cup is one-third full.
	between prefixes and words beginning with capital letters	Which pre-Raphaelite painter do you like best? It snowed in mid-October.
	when dividing words at the end of a line	How could you have any reasonable expectations of getting a new computer?
Apostrophes	to form possessives of nouns and indefinite pronouns	my friend's book, my friends' book, anyone's guess, somebody else's problem
	for omitted letters in contractions or numbers in dates	don't (omitted o); he'd (omitted woul) the class of '99 (omitted 19)
	to form plurals of letters and numbers	I had two A's and no 2's on my report card.
Quotation Marks	to set off a speaker's exact words	Sara said, "I'm finally ready." "I'm ready," Sara said, "finally." Did Sara say, "I'm ready"? Sara said, "I'm ready!"
	for titles of stories, short poems, essays, songs, book chapters	I liked McLean's "Marine Corps Issue" and Roethke's "My Papa's Waltz." I like Joplin's "Me and Bobby McGee."
Ellipses	for material omitted from a quotation	"When in the course of human events . . . and to assume among the powers of the earth. . . ."
Italics	for titles of books, plays, magazines, long poems, operas, films, TV series, names of ships	<i>The House on Mango Street</i> , <i>Hamlet</i> , <i>Newsweek</i> , the <i>Odyssey</i> , <i>Madama Butterfly</i> , <i>Gone with the Wind</i> , <i>Seinfeld</i> , <i>HMS Pinafore</i>

Quick Reference: Capitalization

Category/Rule	Examples
People and Titles	
Names and initials of people	Amy Tan, W. H. Auden
Titles used with or in place of names	Professor Holmes, Senator Long, The President has arrived.
Deities and members of religious groups	Jesus, Allah, the Buddha, Zeus, Baptists, Roman Catholics
Names of ethnic and national groups	Hispanics, Jews, African Americans
Geographical Names	
Cities, states, countries, continents	Philadelphia, Kansas, Japan, Europe
Regions, bodies of water, mountains	the South, Lake Baikal, Mount McKinley
Geographic features, parks	Great Basin, Yellowstone National Park
Streets and roads, planets	318 East Sutton Drive, Charles Court, Jupiter, Pluto
Organizations and Events	
Companies, organizations, teams	Ford Motor Company, Boy Scouts of America, St. Louis Cardinals
Buildings, bridges, monuments	Empire State Building, Eads Bridge, Washington Monument
Documents, awards	the Declaration of Independence, Stanley Cup
Special named events	Mardi Gras, World Series
Governmental bodies, historical periods and events	U.S. Senate, House of Representatives, Middle Ages, Vietnam War
Days and months, holidays	Thursday, March, Thanksgiving, Labor Day
Specific cars, boats, trains, planes	Porsche, Mississippi Queen, Orient Express, Concorde
Proper Adjectives	
Adjectives formed from proper nouns	French cooking, Freudian psychology, Edwardian age, Atlantic coast
First Words and the Pronoun I	
The first word in a sentence or quote	This is it. He said, "Let's go."
Complete sentence in parentheses	(Consult the previous chapter.)
Salutation and closing of letters	Dear Madam, Very truly yours,
First lines of most poetry	Then am I
The personal pronoun I	A happy fly If I live Or if I die.
First, last, and all important words in titles	A Tale of Two Cities, "The World Is Too Much with Us"

Little Rules That Make A Big Difference

Sentences

Avoid sentence fragments. Make sure all your sentences express complete thoughts.

A sentence fragment is a group of words that does not express a grammatically complete thought. It may lack a subject, a predicate, or both. Fragments may be corrected by adding the missing element(s) or by changing the punctuation to make the fragment part of another sentence.

FRAGMENT: *I read the poems of Walt Whitman. A poet who wrote about America.*

COMPLETE: *I read the poems of Walt Whitman. He was a poet who wrote about America.*
(adding a subject and a predicate)

COMPLETE: *I read the poems of Walt Whitman, a poet who wrote about America.* (changing the punctuation)

Avoid run-on sentences. Make sure all clauses in a sentence have the proper punctuation and/or conjunctions between them.

A run-on sentence consists of two or more sentences written as though they were one or separated only by a comma. Correct run-ons by making two separate sentences, using a semicolon, adding a conjunction, or rewriting the sentence.

RUN-ON: *James Galway is a great musician, he plays the flute.*

CORRECT: *James Galway is a great musician. He plays the flute.*

CORRECT: *James Galway is a great musician; he plays the flute.*

CORRECT: *James Galway, who plays the flute, is a great musician.*

Use end marks correctly. Use a period, not a question mark, at the end of an indirect question.

An indirect question is a question that does not use the exact words of the original speaker. Note the difference between the following sentences, and observe that the second sentence ends in a period, not a question mark.

DIRECT: *Lou asked, "What is that?"*

INDIRECT: *Lou asked what it was.*

Do not use quotation marks with indirect quotations within a sentence.

A direct quotation uses the speaker's exact words. An indirect quotation puts the speaker's words in other words. Compare these sentences:

DIRECT: *Jean said, "I'm going to be up all night writing my essay."* (quotation marks appropriate)

INDIRECT: *Jean said that she was going to be up all night writing her essay.* (no quotation marks)

Phrases

Place participial and prepositional phrases as close as possible to the words they modify. Participial and prepositional phrases are modifiers; that is, they tell about some other word in a sentence. To avoid confusion, they should be placed as close as possible to the word that they modify.

INCORRECT: *Tiny microphones are planted by agents called bugs.*

CORRECT: *Tiny microphones called bugs are planted by agents.*

Avoid dangling participles. Make sure a participial phrase does modify a word in the sentence.

INCORRECT: *Disappointed in love, a hermit's life seemed attractive.* (Who was disappointed?)

CORRECT: *Disappointed in love, the man became a hermit.*

Clauses

Use commas to set off nonessential adjective clauses.

Do you need the clause in order to indicate precisely who or what is meant? If not, it is nonessential and should be set off by commas.

USE COMMAS: *Gary Soto, who is also a very good poet, visited the class to talk about his novels.*

NO COMMAS: *An award-winning novelist who is also a very good poet visited the class to talk about his novels.*

Verbs

Don't use past tense forms with an auxiliary verb or past participle forms without an auxiliary verb. (See Auxiliary Verbs, page 1183.)

INCORRECT: *I have saw her somewhere before.*
(*saw* is past tense and shouldn't be used with *have*)

CORRECT: *I have seen her somewhere before.*

INCORRECT: *I seen her somewhere before.*
(*seen* is a past participle and shouldn't be used without an auxiliary)

Shift tense only when necessary.

Usually, when you are writing in present tense, you should stay in present tense; when you are writing in past tense, you should stay in past tense.

INCORRECT: *When she watches television, she fell asleep.*

CORRECT: *When she watches television, she falls asleep.*

Sometimes a shift in tense is necessary to show a logical sequence of actions or the relationship of one action to another.

CORRECT: *After he had told his story, everybody went to sleep.*

Subject-Verb Agreement

Make sure subjects and verbs agree in number.

INCORRECT: *The other boys at the beach was older.*

CORRECT: *The other boys at the beach were older.*

INCORRECT: *Jerry, along with the older boys, were a strong swimmer.*

CORRECT: *Jerry, along with the older boys, was a strong swimmer.*

INCORRECT: *The boys and Jerry swims through the tunnel.*

CORRECT: *The boys and Jerry [they] swim through the tunnel.*

Use a singular verb with nouns that look plural but have singular meaning.

Some nouns that end in -s are singular, even though they look plural. Examples are *measles*, *news*, *Wales*, and words ending in -ics that refer to a school subject, science, or general practice.

EXAMPLES: *The news is good, for once.*
Genetics is an important branch of science.

Use a singular verb with titles.

EXAMPLE: *"The Seven Ages of Man" was written by Shakespeare.*

"The Sharks" tells about the day the sharks appeared.

Use a singular verb with words of weight, time, and measure.

EXAMPLES: *Five weeks is how long we have to complete this unit.*

Fifty pounds is a lot of weight to carry in your backpack.

Pronouns

Use personal pronouns correctly in compounds.

Don't be confused about case when *and* joins a noun and a personal pronoun; the case of the pronoun still depends upon its function.

INCORRECT: *Her and her mother took the train into the city.*

CORRECT: *She and her mother took the train into the city.*

INCORRECT: *John gave a copy of The House on Mango Street to Megan and I.*

CORRECT: *John gave a copy of The House on Mango Street to Megan and me.*

INCORRECT: *Take Sandy and they to the airport.*

CORRECT: *Take Sandy and them to the airport.*

Usually, if you remove the noun and *and*, the correct pronoun will be obvious.

Use *we* and *us* correctly with nouns.

When a noun directly follows *we* or *us*, the case of the pronoun depends upon its function.

INCORRECT: *Us students will read Maya Angelou's poems.*

CORRECT: *We students will read Maya Angelou's poems.* (*we* is the subject)

INCORRECT: *Jon gave a dramatic reading of "A Voice" to we students.*

CORRECT: *Jon gave a dramatic reading of "A Voice" to us students.* (*us* is the object of *to*)

Avoid unclear pronoun reference.

The reference of a pronoun is ambiguous when the reader cannot tell which of two preceding nouns is its antecedent. The reference is indefinite when the idea to which the pronoun refers is only weakly or vaguely expressed.

AMBIGUOUS: *Odysseus, not Agamemnon, visited Circe, and he [who?] saw Calypso, too.*

CLEARER: *Odysseus, not Agamemnon, visited Circe, and the former saw Calypso, too.*

INDEFINITE: *Romeo and Juliet was performed by the Royal Shakespeare Company, which is one of my favorite plays.*

CLEARER: *Romeo and Juliet, which is one of my favorite plays, was performed by the Royal Shakespeare Company.*

Avoid change of person.

If you are writing in third person—using pronouns such as *she*, *he*, *it*, *they*, *them*, *his*, *her*, *its*—do not shift to second person—you.

INCORRECT: *The feudal laborer had to obey his lord, and you needed to obey the king as well.*

CORRECT: *The feudal laborer had to obey his lord, and he needed to obey the king as well.*

Use correct pronouns in elliptical comparisons.

An elliptical comparison is a comparison from which words have been omitted. In order to choose the proper pronoun, fill in the missing words. Note the difference below:

EXAMPLES: *Margo respected Jack more than (she respected) him. Margo respected Jack more than he (respected Jack).*

Don't confuse pronouns and contractions.

Personal pronouns are made possessive without the use of an apostrophe, as is the relative pronoun *whose*. Whenever you are unsure whether to write *it's* or *its*, *who's* or *whose*, ask if you mean *it is/has* or *who is/has*. If you do, write the contraction. Do the same for *you're* and *your* and *they're* and *their*, except that the contraction in this case is for the verb *are*.

Modifiers

Avoid double comparisons.

A double comparison is a comparison made twice. In general, if you use *-er* or *-est* on the end of a modifier, you would not also use *more* or *most* in front of it.

INCORRECT: *We got to the theater more faster by taking the bus.*

CORRECT: *We got to the theater faster by taking the bus.*

INCORRECT: *That theater is the most largest I've seen.*

CORRECT: *That theater is the largest I've seen.*

Avoid illogical comparisons.

Can you tell what is wrong with the following sentence?

Plays are more entertaining than any kind of performance art.

This sentence is difficult to understand. To avoid such illogical comparisons, use *other* when comparing an individual member with the rest of the group.

Plays are more entertaining than any other kind of performance art.

To avoid another kind of illogical comparison, use *than* or *as* after the first member in a compound comparison.

ILLOGICAL: *Bradbury wrote as many good novels if not more than Capote.* (Did he write as many novels or as many good novels?)

CLEARER: *Bradbury wrote as many good novels as Capote, if not more.*

Avoid misplacing modifiers.

Modifiers of all kinds must be placed as close as possible to the words they modify. If you place them elsewhere, you risk being misunderstood.

MISPLACED: *The children always noticed the marigolds walking by Miss Lottie's house.*

CLEARER: *Walking by Miss Lottie's house, the children always noticed the marigolds.*

It is the children, not the marigolds, who are walking.

Words Not to Capitalize**Do not capitalize north, south, east, and west when they are used to tell direction.**

EXAMPLES: *Chicago is north and east of St. Louis.*

Denver is located in the West. (The West is the name of a section of the United States.)

Do not capitalize sun and moon, and capitalize earth only when it is used with the names of other planets.

EXAMPLES: *The sun and moon are heavenly bodies in a solar system that includes Mars, Jupiter, and the Earth.*

We live on the Earth, not in heaven.

Do not capitalize the names of seasons.

EXAMPLES: *The summer will soon be over, and we'll return to school in the fall.*

Do not capitalize the names of most school subjects.

School subjects are capitalized only when they name a specific course, such as World History I. Otherwise, they are not capitalized.

EXAMPLE: *I'm taking physics, social studies, and a foreign language this year.*

Note: English and the names of other languages are always capitalized.

EXAMPLE: *Everybody takes English and either Spanish or French.*

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Rewrite each sentence correctly.

1. Mrs. Flowers was a respected person in the town she took an interest in Marguerite.
2. A true gentlewoman, the tidy bungalow was perfect for Mrs. Flowers.
3. Many of the people in Stamps, Arkansas, was poor.
4. When Marguerite went to Mrs. Flowers's house, she puts on a school dress.
5. Momma takes care of Marguerite's brother and she.
6. Marguerite was so embarrassed she wanted to sink into the Earth.
7. Trying to encourage Marguerite, cookies were served by Mrs. Flowers.
8. Being liked by Mrs. Flowers made Marguerite feel more better about herself.
9. I think younger children look up to we teenagers.
10. Covered with a tea towel, Mrs. Flowers carried a tray of cookies.